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**ON INFINITE GROUPS** 

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1. Introduction. Several disconnected theorems on infinite groups will be given in this paper. In § 2, a generalization of Poincaré's theorem on the index of the intersection of two subgroups is proved. Other theorems on indices are given. In § 3, the theorem [3, Lemma 1 and Corollary 1] that the layer of elements of infinite order in a group G has order 0 or o(G) is generalized to the case where the order is taken with respect to a subgroup. In § 4, it is shown that the subgroup K of an infinite group G as defined in [3] is overcharacteristic [2]. In § 5, characterizations are obtained for those Abelian groups G, all of whose subgroups H (factor groups G/H) of order equal to o(G) are isomorphic to G (in this connection, compare with [7]). Again the Abelian groups, all of whose order preserving endomorphisms are onto, are found (see [6]).

2. Index theorems. If H is a subgroup of G, let i(H) denote the index of H in G. The cardinal of a set S will be denoted by o(S).

THEOREM 1. Let  $H_{\alpha}$  be a subgroup of  $G_{\bullet}$   $\alpha \in S$ . Then

$$i(\cap H_{\alpha}) \leq \prod i(H_{\alpha}).$$

Proof.

 $g_1g_2^{-1} \in \bigcap H_a$ 

if and only if

$$g_1g_2^{-1} \in H_{\alpha}$$
 for all  $\alpha \in S$ .

Thus each coset of  $\bigcap H_{\alpha}$  is the intersection of a collection of sets consisting of one coset of  $H_{\alpha}$  for each  $\alpha$ , and the conclusion follows.

COROLLARY 1. (Poincaré) The intersection of a finite number of subgroups of finite index is again of finite index.

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COROLLARY 2. If i(H) = B, then G has a normal subgroup K such that  $i(H) \leq B^{B}$ .

*Proof.* Let N(H) denote the normalizer of H, and Cl(H) the conjugate class of H. Then

$$H \subset N(H), \quad o(Cl(H)) = i(N(H)) \leq B.$$

Thus if K is the intersection of the conjugates of H, Theorem 1 gives  $i(K) \leq B^{B}$ .

REMARKS. For every infinite cardinal A, there is a simple group G of order A (for example, the "alternating" group on A symbols). Thus G has no subgroups of index less than or equal to B if  $2^B < A$ . In particular, if A is such that B < A implies  $2^B < A$ , then G has no subgroup of index less than its order A. This is in sharp contrast to the behaviour of Abelian groups, which have  $2^A$  subgroups of index B for  $\mathbf{x}_0 \leq B \leq A$ ,  $A > \mathbf{x}_0$  [4]. It is an unsolved problem as to whether there exists a group G of order A with no subgroups of order A, for  $A > \mathbf{x}_0$ .

Let U denote the point set union, and + and  $\sum$  direct sums (the lattice union of subgroups will not be used). If T is a nonempty subset of a group G, let

 $i_{R}(T) = \min o(S)$  such that  $\bigcup Tx_{\alpha} = G, \ \alpha \in S$ .

Define  $i_L(T)$  similarly, and let i(T) be the smaller of  $i_R(T)$  and  $i_L(T)$ .

THEOREM 2. If  $H_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , are subgroups of G such that  $i(H_i) \ge A \ge \aleph_0$ , then  $i(\bigcup H_i) \ge A$ .

*Proof.* The theorem is true for n = 1. Induction on *n*. If, contrary to the theorem,  $i(UH_i) < A$ , then, say,

$$G = \bigcup_{\alpha \in S} \left( \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} H_i \right) x_{\alpha}$$

with o(S) < A. Since  $i(H_1) \ge A$ , there exists an  $x \in G$  such that

$$H_1 x \cap (\bigcup_a H_1 x_a)$$

is empty. Hence

$$H_1 x \subseteq U_{\alpha} \left( \bigcup_{i=1}^n H_i \right) x_{\alpha}$$
.

Therefore

$$\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} H_{i} \subseteq \bigcup_{i=2}^{n} H_{i}(e \cup (\bigcup_{\alpha} x_{\alpha} x^{-1})) = \bigcup_{\beta \in S'} {n \choose \bigcup_{i=2}^{n} H_{i}} x_{\beta},$$

where o(S') < A. Hence

$$G = \bigcup_{\alpha \in S} \begin{pmatrix} n \\ \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} H_i \end{pmatrix} x_{\alpha} = \bigcup_{\alpha \in S} \bigcup_{\beta \in S'} \bigcup_{i=2}^{n} H_i x_{\beta} x_{\alpha} = \bigcup_{\gamma \in S''} \bigcup_{i=2}^{n} H_i x_{\gamma}, o(S'') < A.$$

This contradicts the induction hypothesis. Hence the theorem is true.

REMARK. For every infinite cardinal A, there is a group G of order A, containing an increasing sequence  $\{H_n\}$  of subgroups, each of index A, such that  $\bigcup H_n = G$ .

Let 1/A = 0 for  $A \ge \aleph_0$ .

THEOREM 3. If  $H_i$  is a proper subgroup of G,  $(i = 1, \dots, n)$  and  $\sum 1/i (H_i) \le 1$ , then  $\bigcup H_i \ne G$ .

*Proof.* Let  $H_1, \dots, H_r$  have finite index, the others infinite index (if r = 0, the theorem follows immediately from Theorem 2). Let

$$D = \bigcap_{1}^{r} H_i.$$

Then *D* has finite index in *G*, and it is well known that  $(\bigcup_{i=1}^{r} H_i) \cap Dx$  is empty for some  $x \in G$ . Hence, if  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} H_i = G$ , then  $Dx \subseteq \bigcup_{r+1}^{n} H_i$ , whence  $\bigcup_{r+1}^{n} H_i$  has finite "index" in contradiction to Theorem 2. Therefore  $\bigcup_{i=1}^{n} H_i \neq G$ .

3. Layers. Let T be a subset of G, and let n be a positive integer. Let

$$L(n, T) = \{g \mid g^n \in T, g^r \notin T \text{ for } 0 < r < n\},\$$

$$L(\infty, T) = \{g \mid g^n \notin T, n = 1, 2, \dots \}.$$

For T = e, the L(n, T) have been called *layers*. The following theorem generalizes [3, Lemma 1].

THEOREM 4. Let G be an infinite group, H a subgroup, P a set of primes and

$$S = \left(\bigcup_{p \in P} \bigcup_{\lambda} L(\lambda p, H)\right) \cup L(\infty, H).$$

Then o(S) = 0 or o(G).

*Proof.* Deny the theorem. Let  $x \in S$ . If  $x \in L(\lambda p, H)$  then  $x^{\lambda} \in L(p, H)$ . Hence we may assume that  $x \in L(\infty, H)$  or  $x \in L(p, H)$ ,  $p \in P$ .

Case 1. o(N(x)) = o(G), where N(x) is the normalizer of x. Then o(N(x) - S) = o(G). If  $y \in N(x) - S$ , then  $y^r \in H$  for some r such that (r, p) = 1 (if p exists). If  $xy \notin S$  then also  $(xy)^n \in H$  for some n such that (n, p) = 1 (if p exists). Thus

$$(xy)^{rn} = x^{rn} y^{rn} \in H$$

and  $x^{rn} \in H$ . But (rn, p) = 1 if p exists, and, in any case, we have a contradiction. Hence  $xy \in S$  and

$$o(S) > o(x(N(x) - S)) = o(N(x) - S) = o(G),$$

a contradiction.

Case 2. 
$$o(N(x)) < o(G)$$
. Then  $o(Cl(x)) = o(G)$ .

Case 2.1. o(H) = o(G). Then o(G) right cosets of N(x) intersect H. Thus there are o(G) elements of the form  $h^{-1}xh$ . But if  $(h^{-1}xh)^n \in H$  then  $x^n \in H$ , whence  $n = \lambda p$  and  $h^{-1}xh \in S$ . Therefore o(S) = o(G), a contradiction.

Case 2.2. o(H) < o(G). We have, since o(S) < o(G),

(1) 
$$o(G) = o(Cl(x)) = \sum_{\substack{(n, p) = 1 \\ n < \infty}} o(Cl(x) \cap L(n, H)).$$

If  $o(G) = \mathbf{x}_0$ , and  $o(x) = \infty$ , then since *H* is finite,

$$Cl(x) \subseteq L(\infty, H) \subseteq S$$
,

a contradiction. If  $o(G) = \mathbf{x}_0$ , and o(x) = m, then  $Cl(x) \cap L(n, H)$  is empty for n > m. Hence, by (1), there exists, regardless of the size of o(G), an nsuch that (n, p) = 1 and

$$o(Cl(x) \cap L(n, H)) > o(H)o(S).$$

Let

$$A(n, T) = \{g \mid g^n \in T\}.$$

Then  $A(n, H) \supseteq L(n, H)$ , hence

$$o(Cl(x) \cap A(n, H)) = \sum_{h} o(Cl(x) \cap A(n, h)) > o(H) o(S).$$

Hence there exists an  $h_0 \in H$  such that

$$o(Cl(x) \cap A(n, h_0) > o(S).$$

There is then a  $b \in G$  such that  $(b^{-1}xb)^n = h_0$ , whence

$$x \in Cl(x) \cap A(n, bh_0 b^{-1}).$$

If

$$q \in Cl(x) \cap A(n, bh_0 b^{-1}),$$

then

$$q^n = bh_0 b^{-1} = x^n$$

Hence if  $q' \in H$ , then

$$x^{nr} \neq q^{nr} \in H$$

and  $p \mid nr$ , whence  $p \mid r$ . Thus  $q \in S$  in any case. We have

$$o(S) \ge o(Cl(x) \cap A(n, bh_0 b^{-1})) = o(b(Cl(x) \cap A(n, h_0)) b^{-1})$$
$$= o(Cl(x) \cap A(n, h_0)) > o(S).$$

This contradiction shows that the theorem is true.

COROLLARY. If H is a subgroup of the group G, then  $o(L(\infty, H)) = o(G)$  or 0.

*Proof.* In Theorem 4, let P be the empty set.

4. An over-characteristic subgroup. Neumann and Neumann [2] have defined a subgroup K of G to be *over-characteristic* in G if and only if (i) K is normal, and (ii)  $G/K \cong G/H$  implies  $K \subseteq H$ .

Define (see [3]) a subgroup K of an infinite group G as follows. Let E(x) be the set of  $g \in G$  such that x is not in the subgroup generated by g, and let K be the set of  $x \in G$  such that o(E(x)) < o(G).

THEOREM 5. If G is infinite, and K is defined as above, then K is an overcharacteristic subgroup of G.

*Proof.* (i) K is normal since it is fully characteristic [3, Theorem 6].

(ii) Let  $G/K \simeq G/H$ .

Case 1. K is finite. Then [3, Corollary 3 to Theorem 8]

$$K_2 = K(G/K) = e.$$

Hence K(G/H) = e. Now

$$o(G/H) = o(G/K) = o(G).$$

If there exists a  $k \in K - H$ , then

$$o(E(kH)) < o(E(k)) < o(G) = o(G/H).$$

Hence  $kH \in K(G/H)$ . This is a contradiction. Hence  $K \subseteq H$ , and K is overcharacteristic.

Case 2. K is infinite. Then [3, Theorem 5] K is a  $p^{\infty}$  group, and [3, Theorem 8] G/K is finite. If there exists a  $k \in K - H$  then

$$k'^{p^n} = k$$

implies  $k' \in K - H$ , and

$$o(k'H) > p^{n+1}.$$

This contradicts the finiteness of G/H. Therefore  $K \subseteq H$ , and since G/K is finite, K = H. Hence K is over-characteristic.

5. Abelian groups with special properties.<sup>1</sup> If G is an Abelian group such that  $0 \in H \subset G$  implies  $G \cong H$  for subgroups H, then it is trivial that G is 0 or cyclic of prime or infinite order, and conversely. This naturally leads to the problem of finding those groups which possess the following property:

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>For the facts used without proof in this section, see [1].

 $(P_1)$  G is Abelian, and if H is a subgroup of G such that o(H) = o(G) then  $G \cong H$ .

THEOREM 6. G has property  $(P_1)$  if and only if (i) G is finite Abelian, (ii) G is a  $p^{\infty}$  group, (iii) G is a direct sum of cyclic groups of order p, p a fixed prime, (iv) G is infinite cyclic, or (v) G is the direct sum of a nondenumerable number of infinite cyclic groups.

*Proof.* If G is of one of the above five types, then it is either trivial or well-known that G has property  $(P_1)$ .

Conversely, suppose that G is infinite and has property  $(P_1)$ . Let T be the torsion subgroup of G.

Case 1. o(T) < o(G). Then (see, for example, [3, proof of Theorem 9, Case 1]) there is a free Abelian subgroup H of G such that o(H) = o(G). Hence  $G \cong H$ . If the rank of G is non-denumerable, we are done. If the rank of G is countable, then G is countable and contains an infinite cyclic subgroup. By  $(P_1)$ , G is infinite cyclic.

Case 2. o(T) = o(G). Then  $G \cong T$ , that is, G is periodic. If  $G_p$  is a nonzero p-component of G, then  $G = G_p + H_p$ , hence  $G \cong G_p$  or  $G \cong H_p$ , a contradiction unless  $H_p = 0$ . Hence G is a p-group. Thus G = D + R, where D is a divisible (that is, nD = D) and R a reduced (no divisible non-zero subgroups) p-group. Hence  $G \cong R$  or  $G \cong D$ , that is G is reduced or divisible.

Case 2.1. G is a divisible p-group. Then  $G = \sum C_{\alpha}$  where  $C_{\alpha}$  is a  $p^{\infty}$  group. If there is more than one summand, then there is a subgroup

$$H = C^* + \sum C_a,$$

 $\alpha \neq \alpha_0$ , where  $C^*$  is a proper subgroup of  $C_{\alpha_0}$ . Hence o(H) = o(G), but H is not divisible, a contradiction. Therefore G is a  $p^{\infty}$  group in this case.

Case 2.2. G is a reduced p-group. Then G has a cyclic direct summand C of order, say,  $p^n$ . Zorn's lemma may be applied to sets S of cyclic groups  $C_a$  of order  $p^n$  such that  $\sum C_a$ ,  $C_a \in S$ , exists and is pure in G (that is, a servant subgroup of G). There is then a maximal such set S\*, and if  $K = \sum C_a$ ,  $C_a \in S^*$ , then K is a pure subgroup of bounded order. Hence K is a direct summand, G = K + A. It is clear that A has no cyclic direct summands of order  $p^n$ . This implies, by property  $(P_1)$ , that o(A) < o(G), hence  $G \cong K$ . If, now, n > 1, there is a subgroup H of K of order o(G) such that  $H \not\cong K$ . Therefore n = 1. Theorem 6 has a dual.

 $(P_2)$  G is Abelian, and o(G/H) = o(G) implies  $G \cong G/H$ .

THEOREM 7. G has property  $(P_2)$  if and only if (i) G is finite Abelian, (ii) G is infinite cyclic, (iii) G is a direct sum of cyclic groups of order p, (iv) G is a  $p^{\infty}$  group, or (v) G is the direct sum of a non-denumerable number of  $p^{\infty}$  groups.

*Proof.* If G is of one of the above five types, then it is clear that G has property  $(P_2)$ .

Conversely suppose that G is infinite and has property  $(P_2)$ .

Case 1. o(G/T) = o(G). Then, by  $(P_2) G$  is torsion-free. Let C be a cyclic subgroup of G. Then 2C is cyclic, and G/2C has an element of order 2, hence o(G/2C) < o(G). Therefore  $o(G) = \aleph_0$ , and o(G/C) is finite, hence G is cyclic.

Case 2. o(G/T) < o(G). Hence o(T) = o(G). Let S be a maximal linearly independent set of elements, B the subgroup generated by S (set B = 0 if S is empty). Then  $T \cap B = 0$ , hence T is isomorphic to a subgroup of G/B, and therefore o(G/B) = o(G). But G/B is periodic, hence G is periodic. It follows, just as in the proof of Theorem 6, that G is either a divisible or a reduced p-group.

Case 2.1. G is a divisible p-group. Then  $G = \sum C_a$ , where  $C_a$  is a  $p^{\infty}$  group. If the number of summands is non-denumerable, we are done. If not, then G is homomorphic to a  $p^{\infty}$  group, and  $o(G) = \aleph_0$ . Therefore by  $(P_2)$ , G is a  $p^{\infty}$  group.

Case 2.2. G is a reduced p-group. Then, almost exactly as in Case 2.2 of Theorem 6, it follows that G is the direct sum of cyclic groups of order p.

REMARK. Szélpál [7] has shown that if G is an Abelian group which is isomorphic to all proper quotient groups, then G is a cyclic group of order p or a  $p^{\infty}$  group. Theorem 7 may be considered as a generalization of this theorem.

Szele and Szélpál [6] have shown that if G is an Abelian group such that every non-zero endomorphism is onto, then G is a cyclic group of order p, a  $p^{\infty}$  group, or the rationals. The following theorem may be considered as a generalization.  $(P_3)$  G is Abelian, and if  $\sigma$  is an endomorphism of G such that  $o(G\sigma) = o(G)$  then  $G\sigma = G$ .

THEOREM 8. G has property  $(P_3)$  if and only if (i) G is finite Abelian, (ii) G is a  $p^{\infty}$  group, or (iii) G is the group of rationals.

*Proof.* If G is of one of the above three types, then it is clear that  $(P_3)$  is satisfied.

Conversely, suppose that G is an infinite group satisfying  $(P_3)$ .

Case 1. G is torsion-free. Then if  $pG \neq G$  for some p, the transformation  $g\sigma = pg$  is an isomorphism of G into itself, so that  $o(G\sigma) = o(G)$ ,  $G\sigma \neq G$ , a contradiction. Hence pG = G for all p, and therefore  $G = \sum R_{\alpha}$ , where  $R_{\alpha}$  is is isomorphic to the group of rationals. If there is more than one summand, then there is a projection  $\sigma$  of G onto  $\sum R_{\alpha}$ ,  $\alpha \neq \alpha_0$ , a contradiction. Hence G is the group of rationals.

Case 2. G is not torsion-free. Then G = A + B where A is finite (and nonzero) or a  $p^{\infty}$  group. Thus the projection  $\sigma$  of G onto the larger of A and B yields a contradiction unless B = 0. But in this case, since G is infinite, G = A is a  $p^{\infty}$  group.

Finally (compare with Szele [5]) consider the following property.

 $(P_4)$  G is Abelian, and if  $\sigma$  is an endomorphism of G such that  $o(G\sigma) = o(G)$ then  $\sigma$  is an automorphism of G

COROLLARY. G has property  $(P_4)$  if and only if (i) G is finite Abelian, or (ii) G is the group of rationals.

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